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FROM THE EDITOR

Eastern Illinois University, like its counterparts across the country, is facing a whole series of crises. Enrollment, funds, staffing, and institutional purpose are some of the major problems on the contemporary college scene.

Declining enrollments in the four year colleges are the result of the confluence of a growing community junior college system, declining numbers of job opportunities requiring four years plus of collegiate preparation and rising costs to students and their parents. This situation will be exacerbated in the remainder of this decade by the sheer drop in numbers of "college age" persons.

These enrollment problems lead directly to the problem of staffing as long as programs are continued in the same style as in the past. A substantial absolute drop in students enrolled can only result in overstaffing in traditional terms.

Add to this mix of fewer students the intolerable pressures placed upon institutions by inflation. The ordinary aspects of inflation made evermore evident and painful by the energy problems collide headlong with the desire of tax payers and their legislators to stop any increase in college funds and, indeed, if possible to cut and divert funds to other social uses. Private schools see the same effect in terms of giving by private citizens and foundations.

It is difficult to see how any glimmer of good can come from such depressing situations - but there is one bright spot. The bright spot seen on some campuses today is the search for purpose. While we might intellectualize with respect to how many of our American Universities were developed pursuant to well planned purposes - in many (too many) cases campuses arose simply because the money and

people were available. Purposes, if any, were simply those borrowed from existing institutions of similar kind, size, location, etc. During the sixties we saw attempts at politicization of the campuses as a means to right perceived social wrongs. Today we have the Nixon peace on campus of streaking and the like.

So, given the severe nature of the problems, institutions are now seeking some type of renewal, a search for purpose and the most effective paths by which those purposes may be advanced. Note the use of the term advanced, as we must avoid the pitfall of reaching our goals and stopping. As we do embark in the hundreds of universities across the country on a program of institutional renewal, we must realize it will be a labor that can only end if the institution ceases to exist.

Robert V. Shuff

MIDWEST UNIVERSITY HEALTH CENTER SURVEY

Jerry D. Heath
Kenneth Kerr
Glenn D. Williams

Writing in the February(1970)edition of "College Health" Donald Du Bois observed, "As we in college health service systems define our goals and aspirations for the decade of the 1970's, our most imperative challenge is to approach seriously and determinedly, the question of evaluation. Special emphasis should be placed on the problems of quantification and comparability of the outcome or effect of our efforts."[1] Added to this admonition we now find the press of financial reorganization, shrinking enrollments and the demand for fewer personnel to do more in the way of medical care.

In view of Du Bois' observation and concurrent with present trends and conditions, there arises the inevitable question, "How do we compare with other schools with regard to numbers served, size of staff, professional salaries and insurance costs per student?" Excited by a rereading of DuBois article cited above, and after reflection on the other studies, the authors set off on a mini-study which provides a suggestion as to comparative trends and relative answers.

It should be pointed out that this comparison and relativization of answers comes at a time when the use of health services is increasing, not decreasing. As was pointed out by Sidhu and Klotz, "On the average, fifty-three percent of the student body uses the health center and this percentage is showing a steady rise."[2] Further on in their study they report that most students who do not use the center fail to do so because "they think they are healthy. Only

nine percent of the student body either did not know of the services or lacked confidence in the center."[3] During a time of economic restrictions and despite restricted funds for health center expansion, it is reasonable to assume that the percentage of users will continue to increase at an ever-accelerating rate.

Not only are numbers of visits increasing, but demands for extended services and hours are also on the increase, (not to mention requests for the employment of a wide variety of supportive personnel). In another study, Storrs found that "In terms of medical care, a high percentage of the respondents indicated that longer hours are needed, the health center should remain open on weekends and that the staff should include a dentist."[4] The stage is set by this latter study for an inquiry into numbers of visits, number of supportive staff, cost per student and remuneration for the professionals involved.

Eleven key schools were contacted, all having appreciably the same profile as Eastern Illinois University, i.e., favoring an out-patient treatment center and basically residential in nature with regard to the student body. Enumerated, the common institutional characteristics would be cited as follows:

1. Public
2. Midwest (Iowa, Illinois, Indiana, Wisconsin, Missouri)
3. Minimum of Master's Degree offered
4. Approximate similarity in enrollment
5. Co-ed
6. Primarily teacher education with reasonable secondary emphasis on liberal arts.

Enrollments in the universities examined ranged from 4,200 to 17,600. Surprisingly enough, there was no positive correlation between numbers of students and the salary paid to attending physicians or supportive staff. There also appeared to be a plateau, after which the number of daily visits any one staff member handled did not go up in accordance with the size of the student body. Apparently, when a university reaches the 15,000 level, the percentage of students using the health service either levels off or tends to decrease slighly. While definitive reasons for this were not determined in the current study, it is likely that lack of information about the service, physical location on campus and the great number of part-time students either levels off or tends to decrease health service use slightly. The median enrollment in the study was 8,772.5, thus the number of larger schools was not quite representative enough to pursue reasons for the "plateau effect."

The correlation between numbers of attending physicians and the size of the student body was not quite what one would expect. No school in the study had more than five doctors, (full time) and the median number was 2.5. This means then that the median school would have one physician for every 3,509 students.

Supporting this staff of doctors we find a somewhat larger nursing staff. The median number of nurses in a school of 8,772 with 2.5 attending physicians was 3.25 or one nurse for every 2,698.8 students. Thus there are roughly 800 more students per physician than per nurse.

The average school of 8,700+ had an out-patient daily visitation average of 90 with a range of 16 to 300. Of this average number, 49.5 saw a doctor while visiting the clinic. The number of physician contacts while at the health center, depending on the reporting school, ranged from 16 to 83.

Since the length of the school year varies with the institution, any total figure for the year has to be held with some suspicion. Keeping this in mind, the median number of visitations for a school of 8,700+ students over the course of a year was 21,084. Assuming 164+ actual days of class, (and further assuming light weekend traffic) this would mean a fairly busy daily schedule, particularly on Mondays when the woes of the weekend tend to pile up.

The question of cost for the services of a physician on campus is always one of interest. The authors found that yearly salaries for campus doctors ranged from $21,600 to $35,000, with a median salary of $25,357. As was mentioned earlier, there was no correlation between the size of the school and the salary of the attending physician.

Virtually every professional staff member polled was interested in supportive funds for the health service almost as much as in base salaries. There proved to be no size or need pattern in this respect. The contributions of the several states to the support of university medical services ranged from zero to $98,781 per year (exclusive of buildings, utilities, janitorial services, etc.), with a very low median of $16,470. Supplemental funds generally came from student fees.

Student insurance, which provides in part at least for coverage of the financial burden attendant to illness was found to have a premium range of from $13.25 to $119.00 per year, with a median yearly cost to the student of $27.12. Obviously the high figure was the exception rather than the rule. Schools cited the cost per student for treatment in the university health center to range from virtually zero to $36 per visit. The median cost was $4.29 per visit.

The study was completed with a brief inquiry as to the control of funds. Three-quarters of the schools indicated that the health center controls its own funds and twenty-five percent said that the board or university administration has direct control.

Any brief study such as this leaves as many questions unanswered as it provides answers. However, certain basic suggestive trends do emerge. It is apparent that most university health centers are experiencing "full house" most of the time. The ratio of doctors to patients, considering the mobility and variety under consideration, is rather low. Compared to treatment costs under other circumstances, there is not an inordinate amount of money involved in the per-patient expenditure. Finally, the median salary for those polled is below what physicians engaged in pursuits of medicine in other areas might experience.

With the departure of some financial support for higher education and the attendant physical and financial strictures which that departure promises, supportive phases of the physicians' involvement in the university health center, with regard to numbers of visits and salary levels, do not give promises of immediate improvement.

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4. Storrs, Rosa Tolbert. "A Survey of Attitudes of Students Toward Utilization of the University Health Center." College Health, Vol. 20, No. 3 February, 1972, pp. 204-206.

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A SURVEY: COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY ADMISSIONS PROCEDURES REGARDING STUDENTS GRADUATING FROM HIGH SCHOOLS UTILIZING NONTRADITIONAL GRADING SYSTEMS

Arthur Donald Hendricks

Introduction

The purpose of this descriptive research was to ascertain the admissions procedures of colleges and universities regarding applicants that graduate from high schools employing nontraditional grading systems. The information presented in this survey should be pertinent to secondary school administrators and teachers who are seriously contemplating changing or modifying their student evaluation systems. The compilation of information is also intended to inform college admissions personnel of the current status of nontraditionally graded applicants.

Definitions

Throughout this article certain terms will be used which require defining. The term "nontraditional grading system" will be defined as pass/fail, credit/no credit, high pass/pass/fail or any equivalent grading system. The term "traditional grading system" will be defined as the A, B, C, D, F or any equivalent grading system. The "nontraditional high school" is defined as a school which utilizes a nontraditional grading system.

Procedures

The survey instrument was a one page questionnaire which asked three open-ended questions regarding admissions procedures. The questionnaires were mailed to 238 randomly

selected colleges and universities located throughout the United States. All fifth states were represented in the survey with the majority of respondents coming from Illinois, Wisconsin, Indiana, Michigan and California. There were 165 questionnaires returned, a 69%* response to the survey. Of the questionnaires returned 114 were from public or state schools and 51 from private schools. The responses to the questions were tabulated and are presented in the following tables.

Results

In order to determine if the colleges and universities had admissions procedures for nontraditionally graded students the following question was asked:

"Do you have admissions procedures for applicants who graduate from a high school that does not use the traditional grading system A-F?"

	Public (schools)	Private (schools)
Yes	92	39
No	22	12

* All percentages are rounded-off to the nearest whole percent.

Seventy-nine percent of the colleges and universities stated they have such admissions procedures. This figure of 79% closely corresponds with the results of a survey (1973)conducted by the National Consortium of Experimenting High Schools. They found 77% of the country's colleges and universities would admit students without traditional grades or class rank.[1] However, a survey (1970-72) conducted by the National Association of College Admissions Counselors (NACAC) revealed only 33% of the colleges and universities surveyed had a policy regarding nontraditional high school applicants. It should be noted that at the time of the NACAC survey 45% of the colleges and universities surveyed were anticipating changes in their policy.[2]

The respondents who had no formal procedures were asked if they were currently considering implementing procedures.

	Public	Private
Yes	4	0
No	18	12

These results indicate that the colleges and universities which do not have formal procedures are not currently considering the issue.

Of the 30 respondents who indicated they were not currently implementing procedures for admitting students from nontraditional high schools, the question as to whether or not they would consider implementing procedures at a later date was asked.

	Public	Private
Yes	10	4
No	9	7

The primary reason given for considering the issue at a later date was contingent upon any increase in applicants graduating from nontraditional high schools. As was previously noted, 79% of the colleges and universities had admissions procedures for the nontraditional student. These colleges and universities were asked to specify what their admissions procedures were and to indicate the nature of the several types of admissions policies.

Admission based on individual evaluation which generally includes teacher, counselor and/or administrative evaluation/recommendation, self-evaluation, complete explanation of the grading system, objective test results (ACT, SAT or CEEB), and interview. These respondents indicated that there would not be more emphasis placed on objective test scores because of the absence of traditional grades.

Public	Private	Total	%
25	20	45	34%

Admission primarily based on objective test results (ACT, SAT or CEEB) and/or class rank (class rank cannot be objectively assessed under a pass/fail or equivalent system.)

Public	Private	Total	%
47	19	66	50%

Admission based on conversion of nontraditional grades to traditional grades.

Public	Private	Total	%
9	0	9	7%

Admission based on exceptional quota policy or equivalent open-admissions procedure.

Public	Private	Total	%
3	0	3	2%

Open-door policy for state graduates of accredited high schools.

Public	Private	Total	%
8	0	8	6%

Summary and Conclusion

The majority (79%) of colleges and universities do have admissions procedures for students graduating from high schools which utilize a nontraditional grading system. However, 50% of the colleges and universities that have procedures weigh objective test results (ACT, SAT or CEEB) or class rank more heavily in determining admissions eligibility. The use of class rank as a bona fide criterion is in most cases questionable because establishing an objective class rank under a nontraditional grading system is, at best, arbitrary.

Thirty-four percent of the colleges and universities indicated admissions procedures which avoided placing the student at a disadvantage if he did not have traditional grades. The admissions criteria was based on recommendations, rationale of grading system, objective test scores (though not over-emphasized), student evaluation and interviews.

The majority of colleges and universities which had no admissions procedures are currently not considering implementing procedures. However there was an indication that if there was an increase in applicants graduating from nontraditional high schools that they would be forced to modify their admissions policies.

Currently the colleges and universities receive very few transcripts from high schools which reflect the use of all nontraditional grades. Consequently, the majority of the institutions surveyed indicated a satisfaction with their current policies and were not contemplating any immediate changes.

Some of the institutions felt that academic or athletic scholarships were difficult to determine with nontraditional grades. These institutions indicated there would be an advantage in favor of the more traditionally evaluated student in determining scholarship recipients. Also, out-of-state students with nontraditional grades could be at a disadvantage compared to in-state nontraditionally graded students in regard to admissions acceptance. A few of the colleges and universities surveyed indicated they would accept in-state nontraditionally evaluated students but would not accept out-of-state nontraditionally evaluated students.

Recommendations

The high school which is considering changing or modifying its traditional grading system should be aware of the admissions procedures of the colleges and universities in which most of the students of the particular high school matriculate. *

If the college or university places more emphasis on objective tests, an action which may place the student at a disadvantage, it is the responsibility of the principal or superintendent to do everything possible to assure students graduating from his school(s) fair admissions treatment.

A high school must be allowed to experiment with various evaluative systems without jeopardizing the student's eligibility for college. Colleges and universities should not dictate to secondary schools what type of evaluative system to utilize. If institutions of higher education cannot agree on a uniform admissions procedure for nontraditional students then each institution must do whatever is possible to assure the applicant equal admissions opportunity.

The quest for a more meaningful evaluative system is the responsibility of all educators. It should be a cooperative venture and most certainly the student graduating from a nontraditional high school should not be "admissions penalized."

*For an excellent source on alternative grading systems see Wad-Ja Get? The Grading Game in American Education Howard Kirsechenbaum, Sidney B. Simon and Rodney W. Napier, Hart Publishing Co. Inc., N. Y. City, 1971.

Footnotes

1. The Chronicle of Higher Education, Nov. 12, 1973, p. 2.

2. A Survey: University and College Attitudes and Acceptance of High School Pass/Fail Courses, The National Association of College Admissions Counselors, 1972, p. 12.

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BLACK STUDIES AND WHITE TEACHERS--ANY PROBLEMS?

Roger Whitlow

To the question, "Are there particular problems inherent in the blending of Black Studies and white teachers?" the answer, as almost anyone in the field of education knows or suspects, is a resounding "yes." But to the subsequent question, "Are the problems insoluble? "the answer is that, in most schools, they definitely are note.

To a large extent, the problems associated with the "miscegenation"of Black Studies and white faculty arise because of several unfortunate assumptions, made oftentimes by people who should know better, about what"Black Studies" means, about how the area of study evolved, and about what its purposes and concerns are. Contrary to the notions of many educators and citizens, Black Studies programs have existed for decades, though until recently they were confined mostly to black colleges and universities;they did not simply spring full-blown from the heads of the Watts or Detroit riots of the mid-1960's, though the social ferment of the sixties provided fertile ground in which to establish new and expanding programs of the kind which soon developed but which should have developed many years ago--but did not for most of the same obvious and unbecoming reasons that social, political, and economic opportunities for blacks were painfully slow in developing.

The notions that Black Studies programs are university havens for guerilla tactical training are contradicted by the fact that the programs which have survived the educational budget slashing and the rightward political drift of the last three or four years have had to prove themselves academically sound (that is not to say socially impotent.) With few exceptions the Black Studies programs currently operating

are composed of academic disciplines, the "legitimacy" and "respectability" of which are no longer open to question. The study of black American contributions to literature (the area in which, for some years now, I have researched, taught and written), music, art, and social, political, and intellectual history can now be overlooked only by those who are academically blind and who, in the face of the mountains of scholarship now available, commit themselves to the dogged perpetuation of their blindness.

Another fact that cannot be overlooked is that from Harvard to Berkeley--and at most of the less significant educationsl points between the two--the courses which deal with black culture, at both the undergraduate and graduate level (and recently in elective programs at the high school level), are among the most popular offered in their respective departments. This rapidly expanding student interest reflects, among other things, a deep curiosity about a very large facet of American culture that students have, until recently, been denied access to, largely because of the practiced absence or distortion of accounts of the history of American blacks. Another reason for the intense interest seems to be that students realize the almost countless possibilities for exciting and original study which have, in many disciplines, long been virtually exhausted.

But what about the teachers? Are the problems of staffing the courses of a Black studies curriculum so much larger that the problems associated with staffing generally. Not so much larger, really--it is simply that, in addition to the usual considerations involved in hiring and staffing (with varying kinds of bias possible in each), academic preparation, experience, sex, age, etc., there is one other (poten-

tially more explosive, to be sure), the consideration of race.

The original objections to the use of white teachers in the Black Studies disciplines, which were voiced mostly by black students in the mid and late 1960's were understandable and, in large part, justified. The issue of white teachers was at that time part of the "political" thrust which set many Black Studies programs into motion in the first place. It was, as it unfortunately had to be, a sheer display of the power of confrontation which was made necessary by the obstinate refusal of educational administrators and faculty curriculum committees to implement courses devoted to the exploration of the cultural contributions of black Americans. Many students, black and white (and some faculty), rightly felt that there was something dreadfully wrong with an institution of learning which required students to become closely familiar with the cultures of Ancient Greece, First-Century Rome, Sixteenth-Century France, and Eighteenth-Century England, while at the same time refusing even to acknolwedge that twelve per cent of the living, breathing American citizenry had any distinct cultural heritage at all.

And, alas, when the long-sought curriculum changes came, it was not because of the sudden enlightenment of educators, but because those educators had arrived at work one day to find their offices decorated in wall-to-wall black. (And let us not deceive ourselves with the traditional argument which usually emerges at this point-- that it was not the forced curriculum changes, but only the militant tactics of the students, that offended the educators; because the "proper procedures," presenting petitions, sending delegations to administrators' offices and to curriculum

meetings, etc., had for years proven, except in rare situations, completely fruitless; these procedures had not, in many instances, been responded to with even minimal courtesy, and sometimes had not been responded to at all.)

In short, the educational institutions, through their leaders and teachers, refused to rectify a blatant academic inadequacy until they were forced to do so. And the black students who had forced the changes, sensing (sometimes incorrectly) that they had their institutions "on the run," exerted further pressure with additional demands--demands, that black students be granted control over the hiring and, firing of Black Studies faculty, and that only black teachers be hired to teach the disciplines of Black Studies.

Some of the additional demands were met. Some Black Studies departments were established, though most of the programs were designed with an inter-departmental structure, largely because many felt that the courses would fit more appropriately in their "home" departments--black literature in the English Department, for example, or black history in the History Department, or black music in the Music Department. In only a few instances was the second demand met--that is, that student committees have control over hiring and firing faculty--and in most of those cases, chaos ensued, as students wrangled endlessly about whether Professor X was "revolutionary enough," or "relevant enough." To my knowledge, while at the present time student participation in curriculum and personnel matters is quite common, student control is virgually non-existent.

The argument that only black teachers should teach Black Studies courses came about chiefly for two reasons. First, it became quickly apparent to anyone on the scene in the late Sixties that, while administrators and faculty may have capitulated to student demands for Black Studies courses, they were oftentimes far from willing to demonstrate any personal or institutional commitment to those courses. One of the most apparent ways that this lukewarm, even cool attitude manifested itself was in the staffing of the courses which had, as many educators viewed it, been forced upon them. A common practice was to assign the teaching of the courses to "home-grown" faculty who happened to be known as social and political "liberals," and who were also nearly exclusively white. (The insulting assumptions are obvious: "You like black people, so you can teach about them.") The professional impropriety of such a practice--of assigning a sociological statistics specialist, for example, to teach a course on education in the urban ghetto simply because this same individual is an advocate of civil rights; or of assigning an Asian specialist to teach black history for the same reason--is self-evident. And the message was not lost on the students.

The second reason for the initial opposition to white teachers in Black Studies was the feeling among many blacks that white teachers cannot possibly possess the "black perspective" from and through which the courses should be taught. There are some areas, of course, in which the "perspective" of a black teacher is almost essential--in courses, for example, on black ghetto education, or child development in the urban black family, or the psychology of black frustration; and there are certainly others--but in other disciplines, such as literature, music, and art, the

"black perspective" is built into the academic materials themselves. The teacher of black literature, for example, whether he is white or black, does not serve as spokesman for, or an interpreter of, authors like Richard Wright or Gwendolyn Brooks; Wright, Miss Brooks, and other black authors say plainly enough in their literature what they reason and feel--in short, they eloquently present their own "black perspectives. "The teacher's role is simply to make certain that his students ask themselves such important questions as how successful the work of art is, what its various themes are, how those themes are carried out, and how those themes relate to them and their world.

Those early years of tension and confrontation are, thankfully, behind us now. And, as has often been the case historically, from the crucible of extreme heat and turmoil has come, in most places where Black Studies programs exist, a strong, well-forged product. The political intensity has given way to concern for excellent academic study, and many of the original hastily constructed programs are being redesigned and strengthened. And the concern about the teacher's skin color has given way, in most places, to a concern for hiring the most outstanding and dedicated teachers and scholars available, whatever their race--of finding, in short, those individuals who are deeply knowledgeable about the history and cultural achievements of black Americans, and who, with enthusiasm and commitment, can help students, black and white, to integrate what they learn into what they are, in the hope that what they will become will be a more noble and just form of human being.

IN-SERVICE PROGRAMS: LET'S TACKLE THE PROBLEM

Donald S. Kachur and Louise E. Dieterle

In-service education programs remain as one of the most important post-graduate means for instruction of teachers in the field. Although the content to be covered through in-service programs continues to rapidly expand, innovations in the procedures and manner that in-service programs could be conducted have been lacking. Furthermore, many such programs have been designed with a tendency toward seeking one dimensional answers for multidimensional instructional problems. Those are among the many reasons why in-service education is one of the most critical challenges facing school districts and the entire teaching profession.

School personnel and teacher educators no longer can wait for each other to solve the critical problems and complex difficulties related to in-service education programs. Both groups have been found, individually and together, studying, reviewing, frequently criticinz, and attacking current in-service programs for their failure to lead to instructional improvement. There is no question that designing in-service programs for teachers is rigorous, painful, and time-consuming. However, both groups must put their shoulders to the wheel and push together for better in-service programs aimed at the improvement of instruction.

The value of in-service education is becoming more apparent in this decade than ever before. This increased importance stems from the realization by teachers that in-service education is primarily the major way of keeping themselves educated about: Innovative materials, methods and technology of teaching; research and knowledge about

the thinking processes, concept development, and creativity of students; school organizational and scheduling innovations identification and improvement of specific teaching skills; and new areas of curricular expansion. Unfortunately, education has been through the lush years of federally supported or funded programs whereby teachers could attend workshops or institutes that provided the necessary continuous education of changes in teaching and learning.

To assist in increasing the value and improving the implementation of in-service education programs for classroom teachers, those concerned with such programs must take under consideration certain basic task areas before the in-service program leaves the drawing board. The movement forward of a professional development program by school personnel and teacher educators rests upon how carefully they plan the program in light of those task areas. A review of those task areas can serve as a starting point for initiating the preliminary stages in the development of an in-service program. Listed below are six task areas that should be given consideration in the planning of any in-service program:

(1) District Priorities

The highest district priority must be in-service education and this priority must be plainly understood by the total instructional staff. To emphasize this commitment, the superintendent and recognized instructional leaders within the district must actively participate in all phases of the in-service program.

(2) Time

The school district must decide how much time will

be abailable for in-service education during a school year. In-service education costs in terms of time, but quite often we expect to find a quick and easy solution to complex instructional goals. More time must be allotted where expertise will be focused upon critical faculty needs and responsibilities. Well developed in-service plans that can be implemented successfully require time for the involvement of all levels of the district staff so that those individuals can thoroughly plan, implement, and evaluate the program.

(3) Money

There is hardly ever enough money for what is needed to carry out what is desired in an in-service program. However, a point of precaution is in order when discussing this task area. The amount of money allotted for an in-service program does not necessarily correlate to the possible success or failure of that program. Nevertheless, funding should be made available that will allow for the fullest planning and implementation of the content, resources, and nature of the program so that the ultimate in-service goals are attained.

(4) Staff Needs

Good in-service programs are designed by the active participation of those who are to be helped. . the teachers. Real staff needs and interests should be understood by all through the assistance of instructional leaders throughout the district; those leaders need to encourage, involve, and support staff in identifying needs. The identification of staff needs can lead to the planning of an individualized program that in turn can essentially contribute to the commitment on the part of teachers to the program. Occasionally, staff needs are more easily identified and handled when

staffs are grouped as part of a grade level or subject area. Such groupings contain an inherent commitment on the part of the participants to the improvement of instructional needs.

(5) Staff Responsibilities

During the planning periods, there should be ser - ious thought given to whether the instructional staff have the necessary skills to carry out the program. In addition, every effort should be made so that realistic learning ex - perience are included in the program and that the teaching staff have opportunities to practice in their classrooms what they have learned. The in-service activities should become an integral part of the teacher's daily instructional program so that the in-service program is not thought of as an extra curricular activity. Support staff should be available to help the teachers during the early critical learning periods and help them assess their learnings as applied to real classroom situations.

(6) Evaluations

Careful evaluation procedures should be built at regular intervals into the probram as well as at the end in order to determine the extent to which staff needs and goals are being met. Regular opportunities for staff feedback must be included so that teachers do not become frustrated with the new and regress to the old, safer ways. This procedure also helps the support staff better understand the kind of initial help that is needed and the progress at which the in-service program is moving forward.

In-service education means many different things to different school publics. Despite the differences, the real purpose of in-service programs is to improve the instructional program of the school district and ultimately the education of students.

The tasks discussed previously should help school district personnel and teacher educators approach the planning of in-service programs from a focus of structured soundness. Careful study and planning during the initial phases of the in-service program are crucial; so "make haste slowly."

The development of a successful in-service program results from a sequence of trials and revisions which means a willingness to study the identified problem, a willingness to recognize a variety of avenues to solve the problem, and finally a willingness for all, teachers, administrators, and teacher educators, to become partners in working toward change. This developmental process will grow as everyone realizes that in-service education is not only their responsibility, but also their gain.

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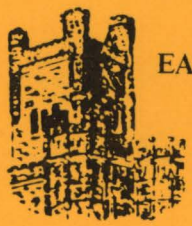

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